

INTERNATIONAL CITY MANAGERS' ASSOCIATION

1313 EAST 60TH STREET - CHICAGO 37, ILLINOIS

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GUIDES IN DETERMINING STANDARDS OF SERVICE IN RELATION TO BUDGET ESTIMATES

What standards are available for use by the chief administrator in making an objective appraisal of departmental budget requests and in providing a basis for discussion of budget estimates with subordinate officials?

When department heads submit their budget requests to the chief administrator they should outline a program of service and state their objectives. It is not enough for a department head to say that his present budget of 40 cents per capita should be doubled because his national professional association has established a minimum budget standard of \$1 per capita.

If the city is fiscally prosperous at the moment, the department head is likely to obtain, not his 100 per cent budget increase, but perhaps a 20 per cent increase; if the city is having budget-balancing troubles (and what city isn't?) the chief administrator's answer is likely to be a determined "No!" But if it has been proved that \$1 per capita is necessary for a minimum standard of service in that city, then the administrator has no reasonable grounds for refusing the request, for it then becomes almost a "must" item in the budget.

The chief question in a given city is the level of adequacy at which a service is provided. Almost every municipal objective permits various degrees of attainment. It is not a question of whether there will be or will not be fire protection; the question is how intensive the fire protection will be--how far the city should go in trying to reduce fire losses. In other words, to what degree will the city meet the needs for various municipal services?

Likewise, it is impossible to determine by the application of any scientific yardstick that a city is spending too much for a particular service--maintaining too high a standard. The question is, what does the city want? What standard of municipal services do the citizens desire and what are they willing to pay for? The best that city officials can do is to determine whether or not a particular expenditure is worth-while in relation to needs and ability or willingness to pay. Particular programs conducted by the recreation department might be analyzed, for example, to determine the cost per participant hour of carrying on the program. If it is discovered that some activity costs \$15 per participant hour the question would arise as to whether this money could be spent more productively in other directions.

Citizen demand for service is another relevant criterion. This applies particularly to services provided to citizens as consumers, such as recreation and library facilities. Of course, the city in recognizing such demands for services must weigh the demands of small groups that want special treatment in relation to the less coherent desires of larger bodies of citizens.

In some cases the point of diminishing returns for municipal services can be determined roughly by estimating their money value. In other words, the city

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should avoid expenditures that are ridiculously disproportionate to the service they provide, unless considerations other than money must be taken into account. In almost every municipal service there are two or three critical factors on which the cost of the entire service hinges.

Thus these key factors must be identified for each program which would be expressed in terms of them. In the fire department for example, the key factors are the number of companies of various kinds, the number of men for each type of company, and the average salaries of firemen. When it is decided that a given standard of service should be maintained, this standard can be translated into terms of net cost and the per capita cost figure projected into the future.

The adequacy of a department's services and the department's efficiency are two separate and distinct things. Adequacy represents the standard of service the community has seen advisable to provide itself, as determined by the appropriations voted by the council. Adequacy is entirely a matter of degree--the sky may be the limit. No fire department, for example, keeps fire losses so low but what, given men and equipment, it could lower them further.

Efficiency, on the other hand, is concerned with the wise expenditure of whatever funds, be they large or small, have been made available for a service. A fire department is efficient when it keeps fire losses as low as its limited budget permits. Whether the legislative body is stingy or generous, there is no excuse for a department to be administered in any but the most efficient manner possible.

The fallacy in the department head's plea for more funds is that he fails to recognize this distinction between adequacy and efficiency. It is entirely within his function, and that of his national professional association, to devise standards for efficient service; but there is absolutely no logical basis for the construction of so-called "standards of desirable service" or "standards of minimum adequate service" for a particular function, until it is known what this service will cost, what resources are available for financing it, and what curtailment in other services or in private expenditures would be required by an increase in that particular service. Since the determination of service adequacy is distinctly a policy decision involved in the budget process and since it involves social and political values as well as technical considerations, it is not a decision which can be delegated solely to the chief administrator and particularly not to department heads.

This is not to assert that the fire chief or the health officer or the librarian should be denied the right to seek additional resources to carry on his program. It is a poor administrator indeed who is not sufficiently enthusiastic about the service he is providing or sufficiently aware of its value to the community to see opportunity for expanded service. However, the department head must learn that his expertness not only fails to give him any special competence to decide how much money ought to be allocated to his department, but that on the contrary by concentrating his attention on the values of particular services his responsibilities for managing his department tend to incapacitate him constitutionally for the task of balancing the needs of his service against the needs of other services. To repeat, there is no such thing as "inadequate" service, for inadequacy is entirely relative to the standard the community wants and is willing to pay for.

Minimum expenditure standards have been proposed on one occasion or another for practically every municipal department--including the police, fire, health, recreation, and library. Some of these standards are based on what

cities are actually spending at the present time--either the average expenditure, or the expenditure of the upper one-quarter of the cities, or some similar criterion. These are false standards. Just because cities as a group spend an average number of dollars per capita for a particular service is no reason for a city to spend that amount. It may be too much or too little. Moreover, expenditures would spiral upwards if every city always tried "to keep up with the Joneses".

A different type of standards are those that represent goals to be achieved: so many library books circulated per capita, so many acres of parks or playgrounds per capita, or so many fire companies. If unit costs are known, accurate estimates can be made of the annual budget required to achieve these goals. But even a budget request based on these service standards and these unit costs do not justify a claim for additional funds. The unit costs may be quite reasonable, but there remains the questions of determining for any community how many books it wants to read, how many parks it wishes to have, or how low it wishes to keep its fire loss.

If these questions are to be answered in democratic terms then the service standards must be determined by the community itself and its elected representatives. The specialists can help most by spelling out the most efficient methods of achieving an established level of service, and by estimating the cost involved. The specialist may point out desirable improvements in local services but the decision lies with the community whether it wants to raise or lower the level of service. In other words, there are no "must" items (except those which are, but should not be, imposed by state law or charter) in a city budget. The budget represents the city's "community standard of living," and that is determined by the people who live there.

These comments on "standards" may help the administrator to make intelligent use of the various data that he can use to appraise his local services. Three methods are frequently used to evaluate levels of public service. A city may compare the dollars, man hours or some other measure of its efforts with so-called minimum standards recommended for an adequate program. Or the city may compare indexes of its efforts--dollars, man hours, etc.--with those of cities of similar size throughout the country, by means of averages per capita, quartiles, medians, and the like. Finally a city may for a few services study certain measures of results accomplished. For the fire, police, and health services, there are respectively data on fire losses, offenses cleared by arrest, traffic deaths; incidence of communicable diseases, infant deaths, and similar measures.

This report does not attempt to list all available standards in the fields selected nor to consider all municipal activities. Numerous additional standards could be given in the health, recreation, and library fields, for example. Among municipal activities which are not discussed are such utility services as electricity, water, and airports, some phases of public works activities, and the staff functions (legal, planning, personnel, and finance).

Every chief administrator should repeatedly analyze service and cost standards in his own city during each fiscal year. Local standards should be developed by establishing a records and reporting system to compile costs, work accomplished, man hours required, etc. Using such data city officials can compare the current performance with the work program for the year, and with work accomplished in previous periods. Standards that are tailored to fit local conditions overcome some of the pitfalls of the national standards. For example,

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adjustments can be readily made in local standards for changes in the price levels if comparisons are made from one year to another. When national standards are employed, the date of their preparation should be carefully noted in each case for each specialist group may use a different base year. Suggested forms for a records and reporting system are set forth in Monthly Administrative Reports for Cities (1950), published by the International City Managers' Association.

Education. Educational standards can be used to measure how well education provided locally matches the recommended goals. The National Education Association has set up "goal" programs (in terms of dollar expenditures) for public elementary, secondary, and adult schools; the estimates of annual expenditures (in 1940 dollars) to operate such programs are:

	Age of Students				Total	20 yrs.
	3-5	6-11	12-17	18-19	3-19	& over
Expenditures per Pupil						
Enrolled:	\$235	\$141	\$144	\$144	\$149	\$10

Since the "goal" expenditures are in 1940 dollars these figures should not be compared with actual present expenditures until adjustments are made for the decreased purchasing power of the dollar. (The Bureau of Labor Statistics cost-of-living index is a good method of making this adjustment).

The per cent of total city operating expenditures devoted to schools in 1948, according to the U. S. Bureau of the Census (in "Compendium of City Government Finances in 1948") was as follows:

All Cities Over 25,000	Cities Over 1,000,000		500,000- 1,000,000	250,000- 500,000	100,000- 250,000	50,000- 100,000	25,000- 50,000
	Total	Excl. N.Y.					
22.2%	23.4%	13.8%	19.4%	22.2%	22.5%	19.9%	24.0%

An analysis of the average current expenditures per pupil in average daily attendance shows that the average of states in the upper quartile in 1947-48 was \$226, in the lower quartile was \$108, and the median state spent \$178, according to "The Forty-Eight State School Systems" issued by the Council of State Governments in 1949.

The CSG report also shows state-by-state per pupil expenditures for high-cost and low-cost city school districts (for 12 grades) in 1947-48, thus making it possible to note both the range in current expenditures per pupil and geographic variations in educational expenditure practice. These data for selected states are:

	Low	High
Connecticut	\$161*	\$256*
Kansas	88	248
Maine	91	153
Missouri	86	283
New York	152	426
North Carolina	80*	125*
Ohio	120	343
Texas	113	298
Virginia	81	188

*1946-47 data

Police. Each chief administrator will want to compare the number of employees in his police department with the average employees per capita for cities in his population group. The averages shown are median, and upper and lower quartiles. Average per capita police department expenditures also are reported for the different population groups. The third line of figures is the per cent of total police expenditures spent for salaries and wages. Sometimes an unusually high percentage devoted to salaries and wages warns of inadequate mechanical equipment or inefficient use of manpower. Finally, police operating expenditures as a per cent of total city operating expenditures are given for the different population groups. (All of these data below from the 1950 Municipal Year Book).

Police Employees and Expenditures*

	Cities over 500,000	250,000- 500,000	100,000- 250,000	50,000- 100,000	25,000- 50,000	10,000- 25,000
No. of Police Employees per 1,000 Pop. (1950)						
Lower Quartile. . . .	2.27	1.38	1.40	1.37	1.22	1.10
Median.	2.53	1.71	1.79	1.67	1.50	1.38
Upper Quartile. . . .	2.92	1.88	2.01	1.98	1.80	1.75
Police Department Expenditures Per Capita (1949) . . .	12.10	6.26	6.16	6.42	5.47	5.19
Police Exp. for Salaries as Per Cent of Total Police Exp., 1949 . . .	81.8	87.6	86.9	84.5	85.9	82.4
Police Dept. Opera- ting Exp. as Per Cent of Total City Operating Exp.(1948). .	13.5 ¹	13.0	12.2	12.8	12.0	

*Municipal Year Book, 1950, pp. 416, 414, 418, 210.

¹Figure is for cities over 1,000,000; for cities of 500,000 to 1,000,000 the figure is 12.9 per cent.

The number of offenses known to the police per 100,000 population is an index of the problem to be met. The average number of offenses known varies widely between cities in different population groups and between cities in different geographic regions. Data for both population groups and by geographic regions are shown in the Municipal Year Book. Figures on the number of offenses cleared by arrest each year are available by population classification or by geographic division in the FBI publication "Uniform Crime Reports" (Semiannual Bulletin). These figures are best used to check the city's crime trend, and the success in meeting it over a period of years. Comparisons between cities is a less satisfactory use of such data, and should be made only with great caution.

Public Welfare. One criterion of adequacy of public welfare programs is a comparison of the family budget standards of the local welfare agency with the accepted subsistence budget schedules of the U. S. Department of Agriculture, of

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university extension services, or of other research organizations. The items of basic living requirement to be included in all family budgets at current prices are: food, shelter, fuel, utilities, clothing, personal incidentals, and household supplies. If no rent is paid, or if no medical care is available, it is certain that an effective public welfare program is not in force in the community (Fred K. Hoehler, "Accepted Tests of Welfare Administration," Annals of the American Academy, Sept. 1938. p.165-170; "Public Assistance Standards," Public Welfare, Feb. 1949, p.26-29).

Studies have shown that effective service is impossible where individual worker case loads exceed 100 cases for general public assistance. The more successful public welfare agency has case loads of from 65 to 75, with smaller case loads for specialized services such as child welfare and services for the handicapped. With respect to supervision the effectiveness of each supervisor apparently diminishes as his responsibility covers more than 8 case workers (Fred K. Hoehler, "Accepted Tests of Welfare Administration," The Annals - noted above).

Welfare expenditures by all cities over 25,000 in 1948 amounted to 11.2 per cent of total city operating expenditure as compared to 10.8 per cent in 1947. The percentage figure for 1948 for cities over 1,000,000 was 16.5 per cent (8.3 per cent if New York is excluded), 11.4 per cent for cities of 500,000 to 1,000,000, 6.7 per cent for cities of 250,000 to 500,000, 7.9 per cent for 100,000 to 250,000, 6.3 per cent for 50,000 to 100,000, and 6.1 per cent for cities of 25,000 to 50,000.

Information on per capita expenditures and the relative amounts received from public and private sources also may guide city officials. Latest figures available (for the year 1946) show that per capita expenditures in 18 urban areas for health and welfare services were \$31.78 a year and that 55.3 per cent of this amount came from public sources (federal, state, and local) and 44.7 per cent from private funds (see table below).

Per Capita and Percentage Distribution of Expenditures
And Source of Funds in 18 Urban Areas in 1946*

Source of Funds	Per Capita	Per Cent of Total
Public Funds		
Local	\$ 7.75	24.4
State	6.15	19.3
Federal	3.69	11.6
Private Funds		
Contributions	\$ 3.32	10.5
Investments47	1.5
Payments for Service.	9.31	29.3
All Others.	1.09	3.4
	<u>\$31.78</u>	<u>100.0</u>

*Community Chests and Councils, Inc., Expenditures for Community Health and Welfare (1947) p.4

A breakdown of the expenditures for health and welfare services in 29 urban areas for which data were compiled for 1946 shows that an average of 45.6 per cent of the amount spent from all sources was for economic assistance and social

adjustment services; 45.7 per cent for health services including in-patient and out-patient care, nursing services, and other services; 7.5 per cent for recreation, informal education, and group work services; and 1.2 per cent for planning, financing, and common services. A detailed breakdown on the per capita basis and percentage distribution is contained in a report entitled "Expenditures for Community Health and Welfare" (Community Chest and Councils, Inc., 1947).

Fire. Probably the best comparison of a city's fire defenses with accepted standards involves use of the gradings established by the National Board of Fire

Fire Employees, Expenditures, and Fire Losses

Item	Cities over 500,000	250,000- 500,000	100,000- 250,000	50,000- 100,000	25,000- 50,000	10,000- 25,000
No. of Fire Dept. Employees per 1,000 pop. (1950)						
Lower Quartile	1.34	1.44	1.44	1.30	1.24	.88
Median	1.49	1.66	1.66	1.62	1.55	1.18
Upper Quartile	1.70	1.89	1.97	1.98	1.91	1.58
Fire Dept. Expendi- tures per capita in 1949	\$6.59	\$5.89	\$5.75	\$5.86	\$5.39	\$4.35
Fire Dept. Expendi- tures for Salaries as Per Cent of Total Fire Dept. Expendi- tures, 1949	85.4	90.4	91.1	89.7	88.2	81.6
Fire Exp. as Per Cent of Total City Operating Exp., 1948	7.7*	11.3	11.6	12.7	11.8	
Average Annual Fire Loss Per Capita (1945-49)						
Lower Quartile	\$2.29	\$2.21	\$1.85	\$2.15	\$1.90	
Median	2.90	3.00	2.95	2.82	2.97	
Upper Quartile	3.42	3.63	3.95	3.66	4.33	
Fire Loss Per Building Fire (1949)						
Lower Quartile	\$ 446	\$354	\$361	\$310	\$279	
Median	838	702	544	519	466	
Upper Quartile	1,100	975	920	915	927	
No. of Building Fires for 1,000 Pop. (1949)						
Lower Quartile	2.7	3.0	3.0	3.2	3.3	
Median	3.5	4.4	4.1	4.1	4.7	
Upper Quartile	4.8	4.7	6.2	5.6	6.6	

From Municipal Year Book, 1950, pp.210, 365, 369

*Figure shown is for cities over 1,000,000; figure for cities excluding New York is 10.8 and for cities of 500,000 to 1,000,000 is 9.0.

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Underwriters or other rating agency. The fire classification of a city, as well as the number of total deficiency points and the number of deficiency points of the fire department, indicate the extent to which the city has met requirements set forth in the Board's Grading Schedule. These gradings also determine the level of fire insurance premiums which the property owners of a city must pay.

Sometimes a city may improve its classification at comparatively little cost by removing a number of deficiency points. Officials of cities over 10,000 population can compare their classification and deficiency points with similar data for other cities by referring to the Municipal Year Book.

Data on employees, expenditures, and fire losses are shown in the Municipal Year Book. Selected data on the number of full-time employees per 1,000 population, per capita departmental expenditures, and the per cent of total departmental expenditures paid out for salaries can be used as a basis of comparison. Performance levels are indicated by data on the ranges of annual fire loss, loss per building fire, and number of building fires. As in the case of crime rates, these data are best used to establish trends for each city. Inter-city comparisons can be made only with extreme care, and oftentimes are invalidated by the significant variation in fire hazards among different cities. Fire operating expenditures as a per cent of total city operating expenditures (last item in table above) are from the Bureau of the Census as reported in the Municipal Year Book, 1950.

Health. Presumably at least \$1.50 and probably \$2.00 per capita from all sources is the present requirement for local health departments to provide adequate minimum service, according to the American Public Health Association.

Selected Public Health Data from More Than 200 Communities, 1947-48

Item	No. Health Departments Reporting	Range	Median	Upper Lower		Median	
				Quar- tile	Quar- tile	Over 100,000	Under 100,000
Cents per capita from local sources spent by health departments	200	5.5-228.2	49.8	72.3	34.2	70.7	45.9
Cents per capita from all sources spent by health departments	205	14.1-446.7	92.0	123.4	68.2	104.7	87.7
Cents per capita from all sources spent by public and private health agencies	205	19.1-535.4	104.8	148.9	74.1	143.8	97.0
Population per full-time medical officer (in thousands)	213	3.7-350.0	47.5	79.9	30.4	60.5	43.9
Population per full-time public health nurse (in thousands)	213	2.9-50.0	8.6	13.6	6.3	8.3	8.7

Figures relating to diphtheria, tuberculosis, infant health, food control, and school health will be found in the Municipal Year Book, 1950. (pp.295-96). Other material will be found in "Health Practice Indices" (1950).

Per Cent of City Operating Expenditures
Devoted to Health and Hospitals, 1948

	Over 1,000,000		500,000-	250,000-	100,000-	50,000-	25,000
	Total	Excl. NY	1,000,000	500,000	250,000	100,000	50,000
Health	1.7	2.4	2.5	2.7	2.6	2.2	1.8
Hospitals	7.9	5.5	10.1	7.2	4.6	4.8	3.0

Municipal Year Book, 1950, p.210.

Considerably more is necessary to furnish services above the minimum. Many communities are providing \$2.50 without considering the service to be more than adequate (Municipal Year Book, 1950, p.294).

The table above appears in fuller detail on pages 295-96 of the 1950 edition of the Municipal Year Book. It was originally derived from "Health Practice Indices," issued in 1950 by the American Public Health Association (1790 Broadway, New York 19). The individual line charts contained in this report will be useful in comparing local experience with a large sampling of practice in 213 communities for the years 1947 and 1948. The relative standing of each local community can be easily indicated through comparing various items of service. (The number of employees and expenditures of local health units are reported in the Municipal Year Book, 1950, pp.305-312).

Sanitation. "Per capita costs for sanitary sewers for sewage only are often as low as \$20 or \$30 for the smaller cities, and may average \$40 to \$50 for the more complex cases, without inclusion of any expense for treatment . . . All these cost figures are based upon prewar conditions." (From International City Managers' Association, Municipal Public Works Administration (1950), p.161).

Two publications of the American Public Health Association are helpful in analyzing the status of a community's sanitation program. They are "Sanitation Evaluation Schedule" (March, 1948) and "Guide to the Sanitation Schedule" (April, 1948). The evaluation schedule, consisting of series of questions divided into 17 major sections, can be used to measure results which have been attained. As explained in the guide, "wherever possible, the status of sanitary conditions in relation to an established standard has been used as a measure of result. For certain activities, as for example, milk and food, rating systems are already available by which this can be done." Valuable background information is found in an article "Control of Community Sanitation" by William T. Ingram, in Public Management for October, 1949.

Only limited information is available on city sanitation expenditures. The percentage of city operating expenditures devoted to sanitation is fairly uniform for the different groups. Where local sanitation expenditures diverge appreciably from these figures an investigation may be warranted. The per cent of city operating expenditures devoted to sanitation in 1948 for cities over 25,000 was 8.1 per cent. By population groups, cities over 1,000,000 spent 7.4 per cent on sanitation (10 per cent if New York is excluded). Cities of 500,000 to 1,000,000 spent 8.1 per cent; cities of 250,000 to 500,000 spent 9.1 per cent; cities of 100,000 to 250,000 spent 8.7 per cent; cities of 50,000 to 100,000 8.6 per cent; and cities of 25,000 to 50,000 spent 8.5 per cent.

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Highways. The only usable data on highway expenditures which is available relates to the per cent of city operating expenditure spent on highways. These expenditure figures show a close relationship to city population--the larger the city the smaller its highway expenditure percentage. Nevertheless, inter-city comparisons should allow for significant differences in the highway and traffic problem confronting individual cities.

In 1948, according to the United States Bureau of the Census, cities of more than 25,000 devoted 7.6 per cent of their total operating expenditures to highways. By population groups, the percentage figures for that year were: 5.4 per cent for cities over 1,000,000 (6.5 per cent excluding New York); 6.2 per cent for cities 500,000 to 1,000,000; 8.5 per cent for cities 250,000 to 500,000; 9.6 per cent for cities 100,000 to 250,000; 10.7 per cent for cities 50,000 to 100,000; and 12.5 per cent for cities 25,000 to 50,000.

Recreation. The generally accepted standard for total city recreation space is one acre of recreation space for every 100 of the present and estimated future population. This standard has been modified somewhat both for the very small cities and the very large ones. The National Park Service recommends that communities of 5,000 to 8,000 have one acre of parks to 75 inhabitants; cities of 2,500 to 5,000, one acre to 60 inhabitants; and towns of 1,000 to 2,500, one acre to 50 inhabitants. In the case of large cities, the standard may have to be lowered somewhat. The American Society of Planning Officials has suggested one acre to 200 people for cities above 500,000 and one acre to 300 or more for cities above 1,000,000.

A less useful standard is the percentage of a city's area devoted to recreation which sometimes serves as a supplementary check on the population criteria mentioned above. The usual figure is 10 per cent of the city area devoted to recreation; this is considered acceptable for cities up to 500,000 population.

On the other hand, how much of the recreation acreage should be devoted to active recreational uses? The National Park Service has suggested from 30 to 50 per cent and the Cleveland City Planning Commission from 40 to 50 per cent. The percentage of recreational acreage devoted to play areas might range from the 30 to 50 per cent suggested by the National Resources Planning Board some years ago, the 25 per cent recommended by the National Recreation Association, to the 20 to 30 per cent recommended by the American Society of Planning Officials. The standards of the National Recreation Association for neighborhood recreation areas are: (1) between 2.40 and 4.75 acres per 1,000 population, and (2) one acre for every 200 persons with a minimum of one acre for 400 persons, or 10 per cent of the neighborhood area.

Per Capita Recreation Expenditures for 128 Cities and
Per Cent of Total City Operating Expenditures, 1948

	250,000 and Over	100,000- 250,000	50,000- 100,000	25,000- 50,000	10,000- 25,000	5,000- 10,000	Under 5,000
Per Capita Recreation Expenditures*							
High. . .	2.13	3.35	2.57	2.56	6.00	4.74	18.43
Median. .	1.54	1.40	1.56	1.54	2.03	2.54	5.45
Low . . .	1.47	1.14	1.26	1.18	1.41	1.86	4.09
Recreation Expenditures as a Per Cent of City Operating Expenditures**	5.4+	5.3	5.4	5.2			

*Municipal Year Book, 1950, p.468

**Municipal Year Book, 1950, p.210

+Figure shown is for cities of 500,000 to 1,000,000; the figure for cities of 250,000 to 500,000 is 5.9 per cent.

Another useful standard is provided by comparing the number of recreation personnel and the number of recreation facilities in a given city with the averages for other cities in the population group (see Municipal Year Book, 1950, p.468). There are also average per capita expenditures arranged according to the size of the cities, as illustrated above. Finally, recreation expenditures may be appraised in terms of total city operating expenditures.

Libraries. The Committee on Post-War Planning of the American Library Association (50 East Huron Street, Chicago 11) in 1943 issued a report "Postwar Standards for Public Libraries." As a standard for community use of the library the A.L.A. says that from 20 to 40 per cent of the population 15 years or over (adult borrowers) should be registered as borrowers, and 35 to 75 per cent of the population from 5 through 14 years of age (juvenile borrowers). Three to 10 volumes per capita for the population of 15 years or over should be borrowed each year, and 10 to 30 volumes per capita for the population from 5 through 14 years.

At least 40 man hours of public service should be provided annually for each 100 persons in the total population served by a public library, according to the A.L.A. Not more than 60 per cent of this public service time should be devoted to circulation procedure.

The minimum annual income for an efficient library unit in terms of essential services in 1948 was approximately \$37,500 (\$25,000 in 1943) a year, an amount which would normally provide service for a population of about 25,000. The most effective units are considerably larger.

The financial support needed annually in relation to population in areas with at least 25,000 population as recommended by the American Library Association in 1948 is shown in the table below (the 1943 figures are amounts recommended by A.L.A. at that time).

For limited or minimum service	- \$1.50 per capita (1943 - \$1.00)
For reasonably good service	- 2.25 per capita (1943 - \$1.50)
For superior service	- 3.00 per capita (1943 - \$2.00)

A normal distribution of the total operating expenditures for the average public library will approximate the following proportions: library staff salaries, 55 per cent; books, periodicals, and binding, 25 per cent; and other expenditures, including wages of the building staff, 20 per cent. These suggested proportions are for the average public library with an adequate income and should not be applied to all libraries indiscriminately.

Standards for Size of Book Collection
Related to Population Served

Population of Library Area	Volumes Per Capita
6,000 - 10,000	3.0 up to 25,000 volumes
10,000 - 35,000	2.5 up to 70,000 volumes
35,000 - 100,000	2.0 up to 175,000 volumes
100,000 - 200,000	1.75 up to 300,000 volumes
200,000 - 1,000,000	1.5 up to 1,000,000 volumes
Over 1,000,000	1.0

There should be a minimum stock of 6,000 volumes regardless of the size of the city. In cities with branch library systems the minimum total branch book

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stock should range from one-third to one-half volume per capita. Total volumes per capita can only be valid on the assumption that a substantial proportion of the collection is composed of currently useful books. The range of annual accessions should normally be from one-tenth of a volume per capita in large cities (1,000,000 and over) to two-tenths of a volume or more in smaller communities (under 100,000).

With respect to the library staff, the number of professional assistants should roughly equal the number of subprofessional and clerical assistants. In large libraries in cities over 500,000 population the proportion of professional assistants tends to be somewhat less than 50 per cent, while in smaller libraries in cities of 35,000 or less it tends to exceed 50 per cent.

The American Library Association recommends that public libraries rendering the limited service that is possible with \$1.50 per capita support should devote at least 65 per cent of their total budget to salaries, exclusive of maintenance services, and 17.5 per cent to books, periodicals and binding. Per capita expenditures for public library systems in cities over 100,000 in 1948 ranged from \$3.51 in one large city to 36 cents in another city (see Municipal Year Book, 1950, p.490).

The per cent of city operating expenditures devoted to libraries in 1948 for cities over 25,000 was 1.6 per cent. For cities over 1,000,000 the per cent is 1.2 (2.2 if New York is excluded). Cities of 500,000 to 1,000,000 spent 1.8 per cent for libraries, cities of 250,000 to 500,000 spent 1.9 per cent, cities of 100,000 to 250,000 spent 1.7 per cent, cities of 50,000 to 100,000 spent 1.8 per cent, and cities of 25,000 to 50,000 spent 1.7 per cent. The uniformity of these figures, especially for cities in the groups below 1,000,000 population, would indicate that a city should investigate its library setup if expenditures show considerable divergence from the averages.

Conclusion. This report shows city officials how the various guides or standards can be used in their cities to determine the amount of service to be rendered and where information on standards can be obtained. No attempt has been made to give all sources of information, and some fields of municipal activity have not been covered. For example, public works activities were omitted since each city should keep unit cost figures on such operations. These data are especially valuable over a period of time in a given city but would be of little value for intercity comparison.

A large amount of the information used in this report has been taken from the 1950 edition of the Municipal Year Book and officials desiring further information should refer to the various sections of that volume. Other recent ICMA publications that are especially useful as guides in determining standards of service are: (1) "Check List on How Cities Can Cut Costs." 1949. 52pp. \$1. (2) "Monthly Administrative Reports for Cities." 1950. 32pp. \$2. (3) "Measuring Municipal Activities." 1943. 75pp. \$2.